



## Research Paper

Synergistic effect of surface and bulk single-electron-trapped oxygen vacancy of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>Junli Li<sup>a</sup>, Min Zhang<sup>a</sup>, Zhongjie Guan<sup>a</sup>, Qiuye Li<sup>a,\*</sup>, Chunqing He<sup>b</sup>, Jianjun Yang<sup>a,\*</sup><sup>a</sup> National & Local Joint Engineering Research Center for Applied Technology of Hybrid Nanomaterials, Collaborative Innovation Center of Nano Functional Materials and Applications of Henan Province, Henan University, Kaifeng, 475004, China<sup>b</sup> School of Physics and Technology, Wuhan University, Wuhan, 430072, China

## ARTICLE INFO

## Article history:

Received 8 December 2016

Received in revised form 5 January 2017

Accepted 10 January 2017

Available online 16 January 2017

## Keywords:

Single-electron-trapped oxygen vacancy (SETOV)

Surface oxygen vacancy

Nanotube titanic acid

CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction

Positron annihilation

## ABSTRACT

Oxygen vacancies play an important role in many photocatalytic reaction, and have attracted enormous attention from the scientists and engineers. The surface or bulk oxygen vacancies have a different function in the photo-reaction process. Herein, three different TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles possessing surface oxygen vacancies (SO) and/or bulk single-electron-trapped oxygen vacancy (SETOV) were fabricated by dehydration or reduction of different titania precursors. The three kinds of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were characterized systematically by XRD, TEM, Raman, XPS, ESR, TG, UV-vis DRS, and PL techniques. The photocatalytic reduction results of CO<sub>2</sub> indicated that both the bulk SETOVs and surface oxygen vacancies contributed to the enhancement of the light absorption, while the surface vacancies facilitated to the separation of the photo-generated charge carriers, and on the contrast, the bulk SETOVs acted as the recombination center. The co-existence of the surface and bulk oxygen vacancies exhibited a synergistic effect to improve the photoreduction efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub>. Through adjusting the ratio of the surface and bulk oxygen vacancies and analyzing the positron lifetime and relative intensity by positron annihilation, the photoreduction efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub> improved with the increase of the ratio of surface oxygen vacancies to bulk SETOVs.

© 2017 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

## 1. Introduction

As the most widely used oxide semiconductor, titanium dioxide has been widely used in photocatalytic hydrogen generation and environmental pollution elimination. While TiO<sub>2</sub> can only work under UV light because of its large energy band gap. For utilizing more visible light of the solar spectrum, a great deal of work by doping heteroatoms to TiO<sub>2</sub> has been conducted by many researchers [1–4]. Doping with foreign elements could indeed enhance the light absorption of TiO<sub>2</sub>, but a large amount of non-intrinsic defects often generated within TiO<sub>2</sub> crystal lattice at the same time, and thereby the visible-light-responded photoactivity did not improved a lot although the absorption was enhanced [5,6]. In addition to the non-intrinsic defects can make the photo-response of TiO<sub>2</sub> red-shift, the intrinsic defects can also play the similar role, such as, Ti<sup>3+</sup> ions and oxygen vacancies [7–9].

Nanotube titanic acid (NTA) is a kind of layered TiO<sub>2</sub>-based material, and first reported in 1998 by Kasuga et al. using the concentrated alkali-thermal synthesis method [3]. It has attracted significant attention in the fields of photocatalysis, photovoltaics, nanodevices and solar cells, because of their unique structure, large BET surface areas, strong adsorption and ion-exchange capacities. In our previous study, the formation mechanism, optical and thermal property, and energy band structure of the nanotube Na<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub> have been investigated systematically and intensively [10]. NTA can transform to a novel anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> by thermal dehydration under high temperature treatment. This novel anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> is very different with the commercial or common anatase, which possesses a large amount of single-electron-trapped oxygen vacancy (SETOV, V<sub>O</sub>) in the bulk structure, while its surface still remains the stoichiometric structure to keep them with a good stability. The concentration of V<sub>O</sub><sup>•</sup> obtained from the hydration of NTA at 400 °C reached 4.6 × 10<sup>24</sup> spin/m<sup>3</sup> [11]. Through investigating the relationship between stokes shift and the excitation wavelength of the visible light, we found that SETOV with high concentration forms a sub-band within Eg (TiO<sub>2</sub>). The top and bottom of the sub-band is 2.27 and 1.79 eV higher than the valence band of TiO<sub>2</sub>, and the gap of the sub-band is 0.48 eV

\* Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: [qiuyeli@henu.edu.cn](mailto:qiuyeli@henu.edu.cn) (Q. Li), [yangjianjun@henu.edu.cn](mailto:yangjianjun@henu.edu.cn) (J. Yang).

[12]. This kind of novel TiO<sub>2</sub> (A) possesses not only a broad optical response from UV to visible light region, but also a very good chemical stability in air. Unfortunately, the visible-light-responded photoactivity of this novel TiO<sub>2</sub> was not good, because the sub-band formed by SETOV became the recombination of the photo-excited charge carriers [13–15].

Besides the bulk oxygen vacancies, the surface oxygen vacancies of TiO<sub>2</sub> also attracted much attention. As well known, when TiO<sub>2</sub> was treated in H<sub>2</sub> or other reducing ambience at high temperature, two kinds of intrinsic defects (i.e. oxygen vacancies denoted as Vo<sup>-</sup>, and Ti<sup>3+</sup>) would appear on TiO<sub>2</sub> surface simultaneously [16]. The hydrogen thermal treatment of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals is a simple and straightforward method to generate the surface oxygen vacancy (Vo<sup>-</sup>), and the interaction of hydrogen with TiO<sub>2</sub> crystals has been studied for a long time [17–19]. So far, chemical reduction or oxidation, and electrochemical reduction also have been developed to synthesize the surface reduced TiO<sub>2</sub> nanomaterials with Vo<sup>-</sup> in various sizes, shapes, and morphology [19–21]. Recently, Tan reported a facile method for production of large-scale colored TiO<sub>2</sub> through a controllable solid-solid reaction of NaBH<sub>4</sub> and crystalline TiO<sub>2</sub>. The absorption of TiO<sub>2</sub> was enlarged into the visible-light region and the UV-light-responded photocatalytic activity of hydrogen evolution was improved apparently [22].

Based on the review of the literature, we found that both the surface oxygen vacancies and bulk SETOVs have the function of expansion of the light absorption, but they played different roles in the photocatalytic reaction. So, if both of the two kinds of vacancies coexisted in TiO<sub>2</sub>, what's the result will happen? Herein, we designed and fabricated three different TiO<sub>2</sub> nanomaterials with surface oxygen vacancies and/or bulk SETOVs successfully. TiO<sub>2</sub> with bulk SETOVs (denoted as TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO) was obtained by dehydration of nanotube titanic acid (NTA) at 400 °C, and the sample with surface oxygen vacancy (denoted as TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO) was synthesized through reduction of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> by NaBH<sub>4</sub>, while the last one with both surface and bulk oxygen vacancy (denoted as TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO) was prepared by reduction of novel TiO<sub>2</sub> by NaBH<sub>4</sub> at high operating temperatures. The different role of the two kinds of oxygen vacancies of TiO<sub>2</sub> in photoreduction of CO<sub>2</sub> will be studied in detail. In addition, through adjusting the concentration ratio of the surface oxygen vacancies and bulk SETOVs, the possible synergistic photocatalytic mechanism of the both vacancies was proposed.

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Preparation of the photocatalysts

#### 2.1.1. TiO<sub>2</sub> with surface oxygen vacancies (TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO)

Typically, 2.0 g of TiO<sub>2</sub> anatase nanoparticles with excess NaBH<sub>4</sub> was mixed and grounded thoroughly. Then the mixture was calcined at 350 °C for 1 h in a tubular furnace under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. After cooling down, the product was washed with deionized water and ethanol until the residual NaBH<sub>4</sub> was removed completely, and lastly dried at 70 °C [22]. And the resultant sample was denoted as TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO.

#### 2.1.2. TiO<sub>2</sub> with bulk SETOVs (TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO)

TiO<sub>2</sub> with bulk SETOVs was prepared by dehydration of nanotube titanic acid (NTA) at 400 °C in air for 2 h, and NTA was synthesized by a hydrothermal method reported in our previous work [23–25].

#### 2.1.3. TiO<sub>2</sub> with surface and bulk oxygen vacancies (TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO)

The preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO was prepared by calcination of TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO and excess NaBH<sub>4</sub> with the similar method described as TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO.

## 2.2. Characterization

The phase structures of the prepared photocatalysts were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) test on an X'Pert Philips diffractometer (Bruker D8 Advance). The morphologies of the samples were observed on transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM-2100). The ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of the samples were obtained with an ultraviolet-visible spectrophotometer (UV-vis, UV-2600) using BaSO<sub>4</sub> as the reference. The photo-luminescence (PL) spectra were tested on a fluorescence spectrometer (JY HORIBA FluoroLog-3). The chemical states of the surface compositions on the catalysts were identified by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, AXISULTRA) using a Kratos Axis Ultra system with monochromatic Al Ka X-rays (1486.6 eV). Electron spin resonance (ESR, Bruker E500) spectra were recorded on a spectrometer at room temperature in ambient air. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) approach was used to evaluate the specific surface area of the samples by nitrogen adsorption-desorption test. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed on a thermogravimetric analyzer (SDTA 851e). TGA measurements were conducted over a temperature range of 25–800 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C/min under air. Raman measurement was carried out using a Renishaw in Via Raman spectroscopy, the power of the laser was 1%, and the laser excitation was 532 nm, wavenumber range (100–800 cm<sup>-1</sup>), and the exposure time was 1 s. Positron annihilation lifetime spectra (PALS) were measured using a conventional ORTEC-583 fast-fast coincident system at room temperature. The coincidence spectrometer used had a prompt time resolution of 270 ps (FWHM) for the γ-rays from a <sup>60</sup>Co source selected under the experimental conditions, and the detailed measurement method was listed in the supporting information.

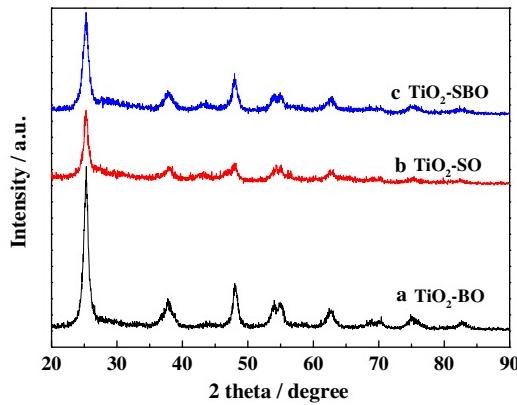
## 2.3. Evaluation of photocatalytic activity

Photocatalytic activity was conducted in a closed reactor with the inner capacity of 200 mL containing 125 mL of 0.1 mol L<sup>-1</sup> KHCO<sub>3</sub> solution. 0.1 g catalyst was put into the reactor and then placed into ultrasonic to disperse the catalyst evenly. The ultra-pure gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> was bubbled into the solution under stirring for 1 h to obtain CO<sub>2</sub> saturated solution. The photocatalytic reaction was typically performed at room temperature for 6 h using a high-pressure Hg lamp (250 W), and the intensity of the light was 2.2 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>. The products were analyzed by a gas chromatography (GC 9790, Zhejiang, China).

## 3. Results and discussion

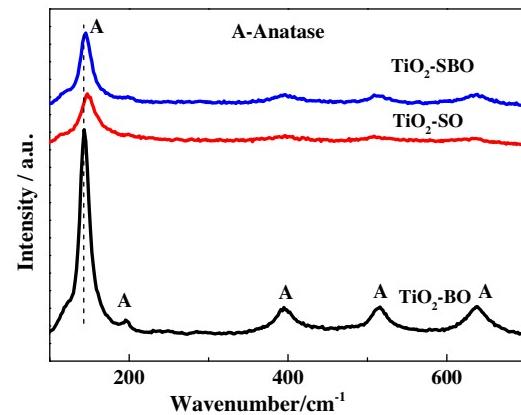
### 3.1. Phase structure and morphology analysis of catalysts

The phase structure of the samples was shown in Fig. 1, and the characteristic peaks at  $2\theta=25.3$ , 37.8, 48.1, 54.1, and 55.0° can be indexed to the (101), (004), (200), (105), and (211) crystal facets of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> (PDF card 21-1272, JCPDS). From curve a and c, we can concluded that NTA has transformed to anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> after calcined at 400 °C for 2 h, and the phase structure was not influenced by the surface reduction by NaBH<sub>4</sub>. Compared the XRD pattern of the three kinds of TiO<sub>2</sub>, it is not difficult to find that the peak intensity of TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO is much higher than that of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO and TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO, indicating that the crystallinity of TiO<sub>2</sub> with the bulk SETOVs is much better than that of the others. From our previous work, we know that the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> containing bulk SETOVs still remains the stoichiometric structure [25]. And the abundant oxygen vacancies on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> would lead the disorder of the surface structure [26,27], so the peak intensity of the XRD pattern of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO and TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO is much weaker than that of TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO.



**Fig. 1.** XRD pattern of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ .

The morphologies of the three different  $\text{TiO}_2$  were illustrated in Fig. 2. Fig. 2a showed that most of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  obtained by NTA dehydration still kept the nanotubular morphology. The high resolution TEM in Fig. 2d showed that the lattice growth striation was clear, and the distance of lattice space was 0.35 nm, which was indexed to (101) facet of anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Fig. 2b showed that the average particle size of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  was ca. 8–10 nm, and a thin disordered layer of 1–2 nm appeared on the surface of nanoparticles in Fig. 2e. Many literatures reported that when a large amount of surface oxygen vacancies existed on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , a disordered layer would appear in HRTEM observation [28,29]. So the HRTEM images of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  demonstrated that surface oxygen vacancies indeed formed on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  after being reduced by  $\text{NaBH}_4$ . Furthermore, Fig. 2c and f displayed that  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  also kept excellent nanotubular morphology, and a similar phenomenon as well as  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  was appeared, that a disordered layer of 1–2 nm existed on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotubes. At the same time, the clear lattice growth striation was same with that of the  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ . The above results illustrated that a large amount of the surface oxygen vacancy existed on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ .

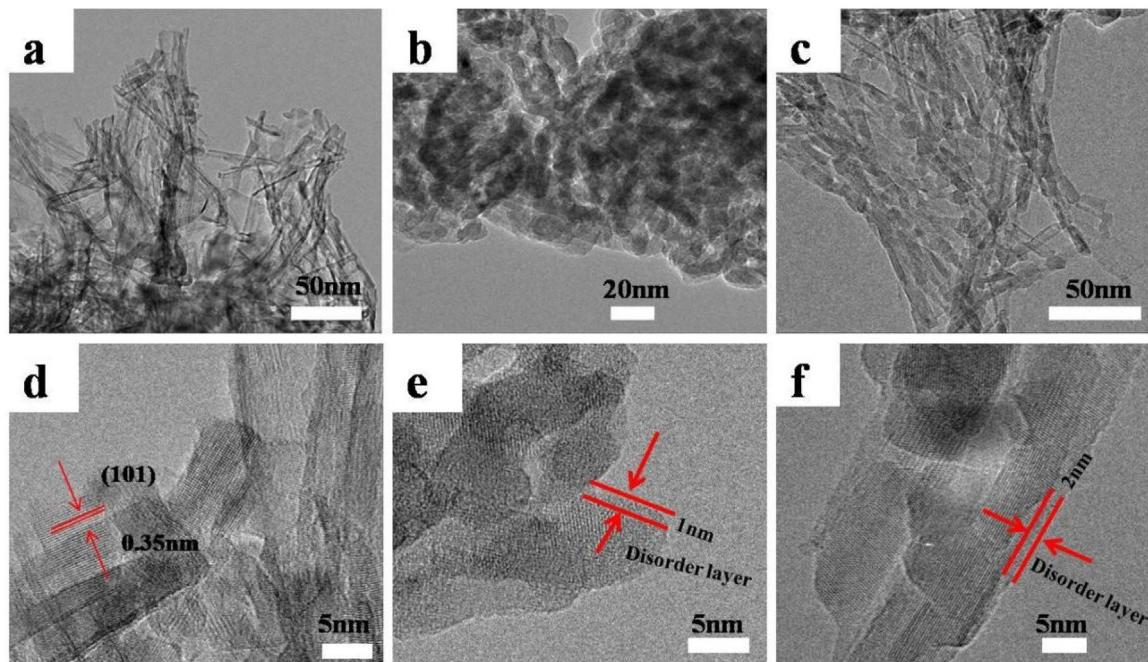


**Fig. 3.** Raman spectra of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ .

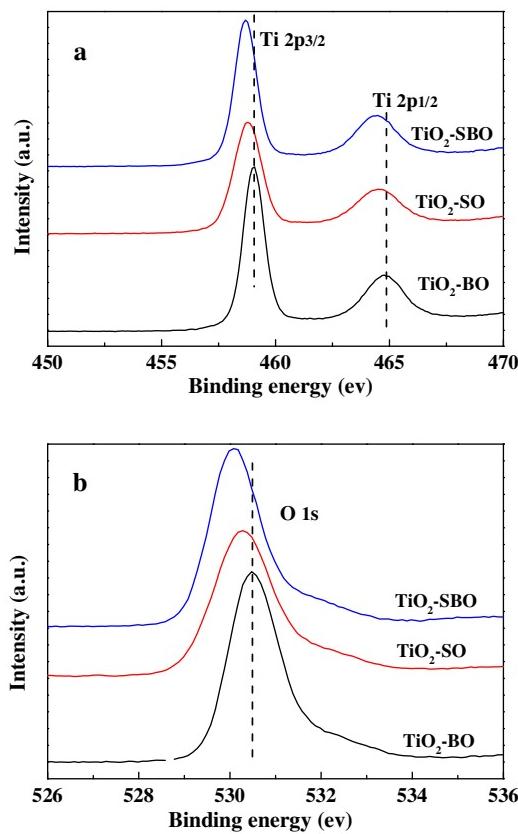
The Raman spectra in Fig. 3 showed five Raman active modes with frequencies at 144, 197, 399, 514, and 640  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which indicated that all of the three samples exhibited a typical anatase phase. As is known, Raman scattering is a local probe which is very sensitive to crystallinity and microstructure. Therefore, the shift and broadening of Raman peaks of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  indicates that the original symmetry of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  lattice has been broken. As reported in the previous literature [30], the shift and broadening of the peaks of  $\text{TiO}_2$  were ascribed to the crystal domain size and non-stoichiometry. We can also clearly find that the peak intensity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  obviously decreased, which were the characteristics of the existence of the disordered phase on the surface [31,32]. These results are consistent well with the observation in HRTEM images and XRD results.

### 3.2. XPS, ESR and TGA analysis

The bonding environment of Ti and O atoms was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). As shown in Fig. 4, the spectrum of  $\text{Ti}2\text{p}$  was consisted of two individual peaks at 459.0 eV and 464.7 eV respectively, which was indexed to  $\text{Ti}2\text{p}3/2$



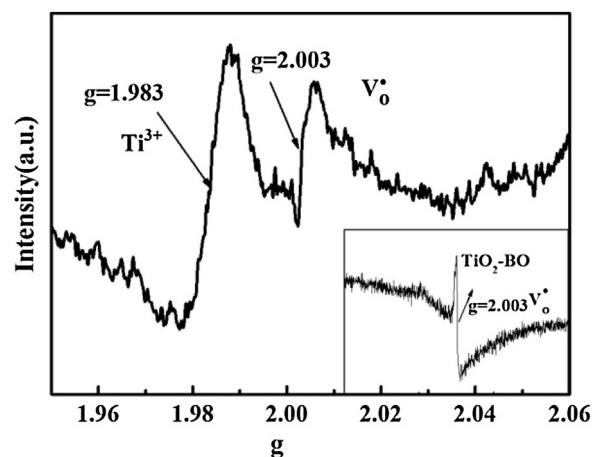
**Fig. 2.** TEM and HRTEM images of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  (a, d),  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  (b, e), and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  (c, f).



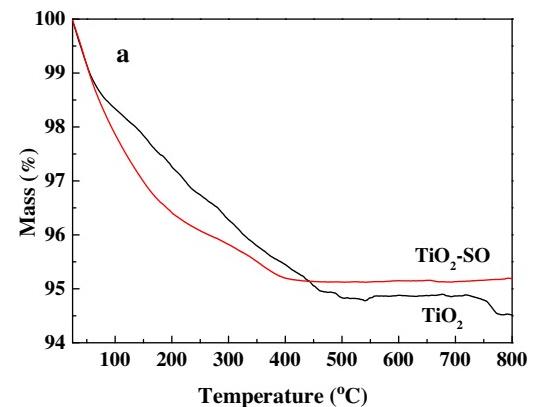
**Fig. 4.** XPS spectra of Ti2p peaks (a) and O1 s peaks (b) for the TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO, TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO and TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO.

and Ti2p<sub>1/2</sub> binding energies, consisted well with the typical characteristics of the Ti-O-Ti bonds in TiO<sub>2</sub> [33]. The Ti2p peaks of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO shifted to low binding energies of 458.8 and 464.5 eV, while that of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO shifted more to 458.7 and 464.4 eV, respectively. That indicated some Ti<sup>3+</sup> ions may have been formed in the samples of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO and TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO [34]. The residual NaBH<sub>4</sub> would decompose under high temperature treatment and formed a reduced atmosphere, resulting in the formation of oxygen vacancy and Ti<sup>3+</sup> on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals. This change in the oxidation state is supported by the observed peak shift for Ti2p to low binding energy direction. In addition, O1s binding energy (Fig. 4b) of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO (530.1 eV) was also lower than that of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO (530.3 eV) and TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO (530.5 eV). These results indicated that the formation of some Ti<sup>3+</sup> ions indeed influence the bond interaction states of Ti-O bond. Besides the XPS measurement, the electron spin resonance (ESR) spectra was also used to analysis the Ti<sup>3+</sup> and oxygen vacancies.

As well known, ESR is a kind of spectrum technique to detect and study the paramagnetism materials containing unpaired electrons. Under the reduced atmosphere, the formed oxygen vacancies on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> often possesses two electrons (V<sub>O..</sub>) or no electron (V<sub>O</sub>), both of these two oxygen vacancies have no signals in ESR detection. Only the oxygen vacancies with one electron (V<sub>O</sub><sup>+</sup>) would have the ESR signal. As shown in Fig. 5, two peaks was appeared in the ESR spectrum of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO, the one of g = 1.983 was assigned to a paramagnetic Ti<sup>3+</sup> center [35], and the other one of g = 2.003 was ascribed to the bulk SETOVs. Although the surface oxygen vacancies can't be detected by ESR directly, the surface oxygen vacancies often have two electrons, and some of them will reduce the adjoining Ti<sup>4+</sup> to Ti<sup>3+</sup>, so the formation of Ti<sup>3+</sup> verified the existence of surface oxygen vacancies indirectly. The inset illustration shows a symmetrical ESR signal with g = 2.003 (G = 3508), indicated that TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO only



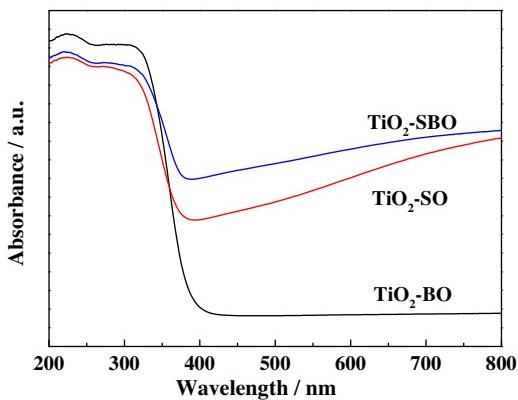
**Fig. 5.** ESR spectra of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO.



**Fig. 6.** TGA curves of TiO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO (a) and TiO<sub>2</sub>-BO, TiO<sub>2</sub>-SBO (b) in air atmosphere.

exists bulk SETOVs, that was consistent with our previous work [21–24].

In order to further understand the existence of bulk and surface oxygen vacancies, the thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was used to detect the mass change of samples in air atmosphere. As shown in Fig. 6a, the mass loss of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the low temperature range is mainly ascribed to the desorption of physically adsorbed H<sub>2</sub>O and hydroxyl groups [36]. And after that, the mass remained constant until the temperature exceeded 560 °C. Compared the two curves in Fig. 6a, we found that the curve of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO is the same as that of TiO<sub>2</sub> below 440 °C, and there is an obvious difference in mass loss between them when the temperature exceeds 440 °C. A light mass increase was observed for TiO<sub>2</sub>-SO, which is finished at ca. 800 °C. There existed a large amount of oxygen vacancies on the surface of



**Fig. 7.** The UV-vis diffuse reflection spectroscopy (DRS) of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$ , and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ .

$\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$ , so the unsaturated surface would be compensated by the oxygen when the sample was heated in air [37], and thus the mass would increase. The same phenomenon was appeared in Fig. 6b, the mass decreased first because of desorption physically adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and hydroxyl groups, and increased a little at the high temperature range. Compared with  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ , the mass increase of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  was more apparently, indicating that the oxygen compensation for the surface oxygen vacancies was much easier.

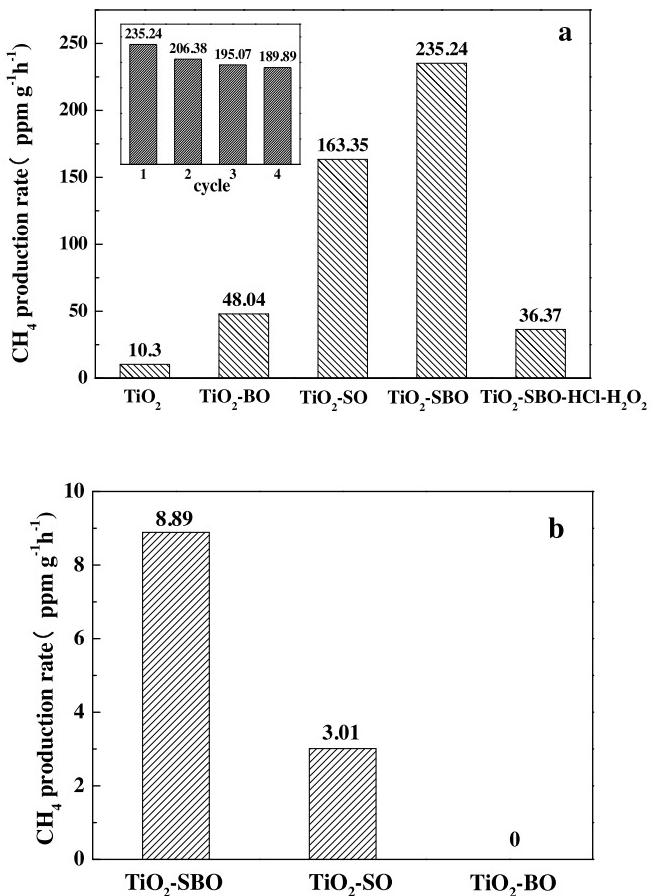
### 3.3. Optical absorption properties

Fig. 7 shows the UV-vis diffuse reflection spectroscopy of the three kinds of  $\text{TiO}_2$  with different oxygen vacancies. All of them have the similarly strong absorption in the UV region, but their visible light absorption has a large difference. The sample of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  showed a very weak absorption in the range of 400–430 nm. From our previously work, we knew that  $\text{TiO}_2$  obtained by dehydration of NTA possessed a large amount of single electron oxygen vacancies (SETOVs), and which can form a sub-band in the forbidden band of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and leading a visible light absorption, but the absorption intensity was relatively low [25]. And this kind of SETOV have been detected by ESR measurement, so the weak absorption of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  in the visible light should be attributed to the existence of SETOV. On the contrast, both  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  with the surface oxygen vacancies exhibited a much stronger absorption in the visible light region of 400–800 nm. Comparing the three samples, the difference of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  with the others is that the latter two contains abundant surface oxygen vacancies, indicating that the surface oxygen vacancies contributed a lot to the visible light absorption. Moreover, observation of the color of the three  $\text{TiO}_2$ , we found that  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  showed the light grey color, and the others displayed a very dark blue color. These optical colors consisted very well with the light absorption property of these three kinds of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . In addition, the colored  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples almost scarcely change under ambient conditions over a year, implying that they showed a very long-term stability.

### 3.4. Photo-reduction of $\text{CO}_2$ to $\text{CH}_4$ on different $\text{TiO}_2$

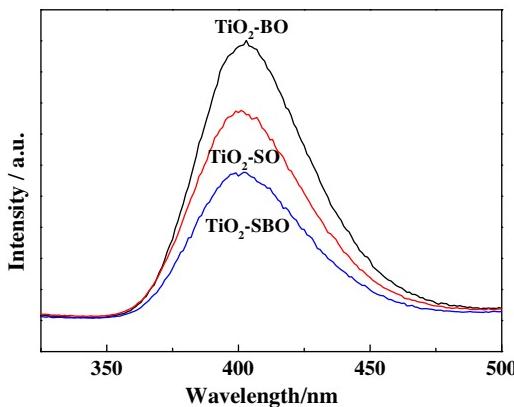
The photoreduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  was used as the probe reaction to evaluate the photoactivity of these three kinds of  $\text{TiO}_2$  with different oxygen vacancies. Firstly, a series of comparison experiments was conducted to verify the photocatalytic reduction process of  $\text{CO}_2$ . When the reaction was kept in dark or without  $\text{TiO}_2$  input, there was no  $\text{CH}_4$  detectable, indicating that the photo-excitation of the photocatalysts was essential in  $\text{CO}_2$  photoreduction.

The production rate of  $\text{CH}_4$  by  $\text{CO}_2$  photoreduction on different  $\text{TiO}_2$  was shown in Fig. 8. Fig. 8a illustrated the photoactivity



**Fig. 8.** Photocatalytic activity of  $\text{CH}_4$  production rate on different  $\text{TiO}_2$  (a: under UV irradiation, b: under visible light irradiation), the insert figure shows the stability of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ .

of different kinds of  $\text{TiO}_2$  under UV light irradiation, and the production rate of  $\text{CH}_4$  on the common anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  raw was  $10.30 \text{ ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ . Although  $\text{TiO}_2$  can be excited by UV light, if there existed not any surface state to accelerate the separation of the excited charge carriers, its photoactivity was very low. However, all of  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples containing oxygen vacancies exhibit a much higher total  $\text{CH}_4$  production rate than the raw  $\text{TiO}_2$ . The production rate of  $\text{CH}_4$  on  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  was  $48.04 \text{ ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , which was much lower than that of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ . On one hand, the light absorption of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  was much weaker than the others. On the other hand, the large amount of bulk SETOVs in  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  can act as the recombination center of the photoexcited charge carriers, and thus lead to a lower photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction. Comparing the photoactivities of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ , we found that the highest activity of  $235.24 \text{ ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  without loading any noble metal was obtained by the latter one. Through the above analysis of the structure and morphology of these two kinds of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , we knew that both the surface oxygen vacancies and bulk SETOVs contributed to the enhancement of the light absorption. And both of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  contains a surface disordered layer corresponded to the abundant surface oxygen vacancies. According to the literature [38], the surface oxygen vacancies can acted as the separation center for the photoexcited charge carriers, so their photoactivity was much higher than  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ . For verify the separation role for the photoexcited charge carriers, the surface oxygen vacancies was removed by hydrogen peroxide [20]. The detailed process was ascribed as that,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  was added into the hydrochloric acid solution and stirred mildly for 12 h, during which 40 mL hydrogen peroxide was added, and after centrifugation, washing and drying,



**Fig. 9.** The photoluminescent spectra of the  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ .

a laurel-green sample was obtained eventually. When the surface oxygen vacancies of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  was removed, the photo-production rate of  $\text{CH}_4$  decreased dramatically to  $36.37 \text{ ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , and this is almost consistent with the photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ . That verified the surface oxygen vacancies indeed played a very important role in the separation efficiency for the photo-excited electron hole pairs. Moreover, the recycle experiments of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  with two kinds of vacancies were conducted and shown in the inserted Fig. 8a. The production rates of  $\text{CH}_4$  in the consecutive four cycles were 235.24, 206.38, 195.07, and  $189.89 \text{ ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , respectively. That is to say, the photoactivity kept over 81% after four recycles, indicating the sample maintained a long-term stability in the photoreduction of  $\text{CO}_2$ . In addition, the black blue color of the samples was unchanged over one year after they were synthesized (Fig. S1).

The visible-light-responded photoactivity of  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction was also tested and shown in Fig. 8b.  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  did not exhibit any activity under visible light irradiation. As described above, the bulk SETOV not only acted as the drawboard for the visible light, but also acted as the recombination center for the excited charge carriers, so no activity was obtained on  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ . The highest production rate of  $\text{CH}_4$  was also achieved as  $8.89 \text{ ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  on  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ , which was in accordance with the activity order under UV light irradiation. Comparison the photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$ , we found that the production rate of  $\text{CH}_4$  decreased from 163.35 to  $3.01 \text{ ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  when the incident light changed from full spectrum light to the visible light. The latter one is only 1.8% to the former one. And the activity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  is almost 16 times of that of the common  $\text{TiO}_2$ . The biggest difference of the two sample of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  and pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  is that the former one has a strong absorption of the visible light and contains a large amount of surface oxygen vacancies. Since the visible light activity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  is much lower, the surface oxygen vacancies should be contributed a lot to the full spectrum activity, indicating that the surface oxygen vacancies played a very important role in separation of the photo-generated charge carriers. Let's compare the full spectrum light and visible light activity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ , the latter is 3.8% of the former, which improved a lot than the sample of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$ . That's to say, the bulk SETOVs also contributed the visible light activity. As analyzed above, the bulk SETOVs in the forbidden band of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  leads a strong visible light absorption. When the sample was excited, more photons can be utilized, and

**Table 1**

Positron Lifetime and Relative Intensities of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-400}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-500}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-600}$ .

sample	$\tau_1$ (ps)	$\tau_2$ (ps)	$I_1$ (%)	$I_2$ (%)	$I_1/I_2$
$\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-400}$	274	388	72.492	27.508	2.635
$\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-500}$	291	413	82.835	17.167	4.825
$\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-600}$	297	432	89.302	10.5	8.347

so a much higher activity was achieved with the synergistic effect of the charge separation function of the surface oxygen vacancies.

The photoluminescence (PL) emission spectrum was also used to understand the transfer and recombination behavior of the photo-generated charge carriers. As shown in Fig. 9, all samples exhibited a broad signal located ca. 402 nm, which resulted from the recombination of the photo-excited electrons and holes. The peak intensity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  is the highest, indicating the recombination efficiency is much higher than others [39]. Our previous work has reported that the bulk SETOVs in  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  often acted as the recombination center for the photo-excited charge carriers, so its PL emission intensity is much higher. While the PL peak of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  has an obvious decrease compared with that of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$ , which was attributed to the existence of the surface oxygen vacancies. And for  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ , the peak decreased further, indicating that the separation efficiency improved correspondingly. And as a result, the PL emission result fitted very well with the actual photocatalytic activity.

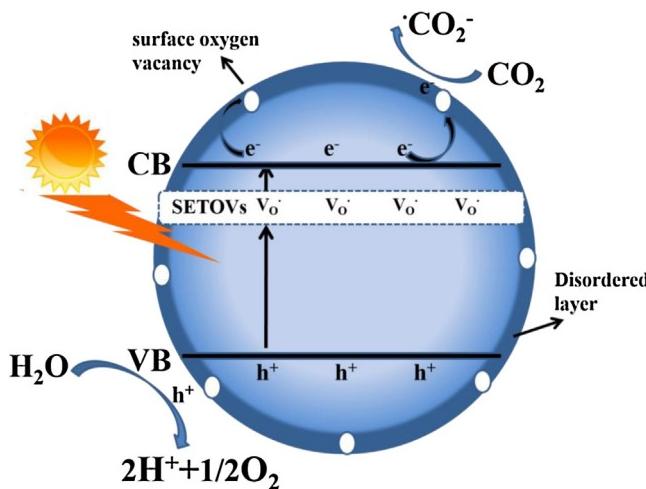
### 3.5. Effect of the ratio of surface oxygen vacancies and bulk SETOVs of $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ on photoactivity

Since the surface oxygen vacancy and the bulk SETOV plays different roles in the photoreduction of  $\text{CO}_2$ , the effect of the ratio of these two defects was investigated. From our previously work, the concentration of bulk SETOVs depended on the dehydration temperature of NTA [25]. Herein, the formation condition of the surface oxygen vacancies was kept unchanged, and the concentration of the bulk SETOVs was adjusted by changing the calcination temperature ( $400, 500, 600^\circ\text{C}$ ) of NTA. Three samples with different ratio of surface oxygen vacancy and bulk SETOV were denoted as  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-400}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-500}$ , and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-600}$ . Positron annihilation is a well-established technique to study defects in materials, so it was used to analyze the oxygen defects in  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  (Table 1). The longer lifetime components ( $\tau_2$ ) should be arises from positrons trapped by larger size defects such as oxygen vacancy clusters (i.e., dimers, trimers, or larger). Generally, the shorter lifetime components ( $\tau_1$ ) is attributed to the free annihilation of positrons in defect-free crystals [40,41]. In this work, the bulk SETOVs possesses one single electron, which has been verified by ESR measurement and fitted well with our previous work, so the shorter one ( $\tau_1$ ) should be corresponded to the positron lifetime in the bulk SETOVs. And the amount of surface oxygen vacancies were abundant according to the above analysis of HRTEM, XPS, ESR and TGA. At the same time, the defect center of surface oxygen vacancies often contains two electrons, and the abundant surface oxygen vacancies would gather to dimers, trimers, or clusters, so the longer one ( $\tau_2$ ) should refer to the positron lifetime in the surface oxygen vacancies. As shown in Table 1, the ratio of  $I_1$  to  $I_2$  ( $I_1/I_2$ ) for  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-400}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-500}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-600}$  are 2.635, 4.825, and 8.347, respectively,

**Table 2**

The corresponding specific rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  production on the three samples catalysts under UV irradiation.

sample	surface area $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$	rate of $\text{CH}_4$ $\text{ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$	specific rate of $\text{CH}_4$ $\text{ppm m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$
$\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-400}$	202.16	235.24	1.17
$\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-500}$	138.72	139.03	1
$\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-600}$	86.19	34.4	0.4



**Fig. 10.** Schematic diagram of  $\text{CO}_2$  photoreduction mechanism on  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$ .

indicating that the ratio of bulk defects to surface defects increases with the improvement of the dehydration temperature of NTA.

The effect of defects ratio of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocrystals on the photocatalytic activity of  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction was shown in Table 2. The production rate of  $\text{CH}_4$  on  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-400}$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-500}$ , and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO-600}$  are 235.24, 139.03, and 34.4  $\text{ppm g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , respectively. The morphology and structure of these samples is shown in Fig. S2–S5. As these three samples have different specific surface areas, their specific rates of  $\text{CH}_4$  production (per unit surface area of catalyst) was calculated as 1.17, 1.00, and 0.40  $\text{ppm g}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ . In other words, increase in the ratio of the surface oxygen vacancies leads to a significant enhancement in the photocatalytic activity. As the increase of the ratio of SO/BO, the separation efficiency of the photo-generated charge carriers would increase, and thereby improving the photocatalytic activity.

### 3.6. Proposal of the photocatalytic mechanism of $\text{CO}_2$ reduction

Based on the above experimental and discussion results, the function of oxygen vacancies of the anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  could be divided into three aspects: (1)  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  possessing bulk SETOVs showed the light visible-light response, but displayed a relatively lower photocatalytic reduction activity of  $\text{CO}_2$  to  $\text{CH}_4$ . The reason should be due to that the sub-band of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-BO}$  formed by SETOVs acted as the drawboard to enhance the light absorption, but it also can conduct as the recombination center for the photo-generated charge carriers. (2)  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SO}$  containing abundant surface oxygen vacancies enhanced the visible light absorption remarkably, and they are believed to act as the electron capture traps to inhibit electron-hole recombination. In addition, the surface oxygen vacancies center can also increase the adsorption for  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules, which will improve the photoactivity for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction. (3) The last  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  possessing simultaneously bulk SETOVs and surface oxygen vacancies can utilize the advantages of the above two kinds of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . The photocatalytic mechanism for  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction was proposed in Fig. 10. The bulk SETOVs formed a middle band in the forbidden gap of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . When  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  was irradiated by the light, both of the UV and visible light can be utilized. And the surface oxygen vacancies acted as the active surface state to increase the light absorption and accelerate the separation of the photo-excited charge carriers, and thereby the photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-SBO}$  was highest. Therefore, the synergy effect of surface oxygen vacancies and bulk SETOVs was the main reason to response to the enhanced photoactivity.

## 4. Conclusions

In summary, both surface and bulk oxygen vacancies in  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocrystals play very important roles in photoreduction of  $\text{CO}_2$ . Three kinds of  $\text{TiO}_2$  with different surface oxygen vacancies and bulk SETOVs was obtained, and the one possessing both defects exhibited a higher activity for  $\text{CO}_2$  photoreduction. From the systematic analysis of the structure and properties, we knew that the bulk SETOVs formed a middle sub-band in the forbidden gap of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and thus make  $\text{TiO}_2$  have a response to the visible light, while they can also act as the recombination center of the charge carriers. The surface oxygen vacancies not only have a strong response to the visible light, but also act as the capture traps to inhibit electrons-holes recombination. By adjusting the ratio of surface oxygen vacancies and bulk SETOVs, and analyzing the lifetime and intensity by positron annihilation, the photoreduction efficiency of  $\text{CO}_2$  improved with the increase of the ratio of surface oxygen vacancies to bulk SETOVs. The findings of this work provide fundamental insight into the role of surface/bulk defects in photocatalytic reaction and open up a novel strategy for significantly improving photocatalytic efficiency, and the strategy may also be applicable to other photocatalysts.

## Acknowledgments

The authors gratefully acknowledge the support of the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 21103042, 21471047 and 21673066), Program for Science & Technology Innovation Talents (15HASTIT043) and Innovative Research Team (16IRT-STHN015) from the University of Henan Province.

## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2017.01.025>.

## References

- [1] S.T. Martin, C.L. Morrison, M.R. Hoffmann, *J. Phys. Chem.* 98 (1994) 13695–13704.
- [2] O. Diwald, T.L. Thompson, T. Zubkov, E.G. Goralski, S.D. Walck, J. John, T. Yates, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 108 (2004) 6004–6008.
- [3] Z. Shen, J. Zhong, L. Wang, Y. Zheng, Y. Cui, L. Chen, *J. Mol. Catal. (China)* 30 (2016) 260–268.
- [4] S. Liu, J. Yu, S. Mann, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 113 (2009) 10712–10717.
- [5] N. Serpone, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 110 (2006) 24287–24293.
- [6] A.V. Emeline, N.V. Sheremeteva, N.V. Khomchenko, V.K. Ryabchuk, N. Serpone, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 111 (2007) 11456–11462.
- [7] T. Ihara, M. Miyoshi, M. Ando, S. Sugihara, Y. Iriyama, *Mater. Sci.* 36 (2001) 4201–4207.
- [8] J. Huo, Y. Hu, H. Jiang, C. Li, *Nanoscale* 6 (2014) 9078–9084.
- [9] J. Cai, Y. Wang, Y. Zhu, M. Wu, H. Zhang, X. Li, Z. Jiang, M. Meng, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 7 (2015) 24987–24992.
- [10] A. Fujishima, *Nature* 238 (1972) 37–38.
- [11] C. Feng, Z. Jin, J. Zhang, Z. Wu, Z. Zhang, *Photochem. Photobiol.* 86 (2010) 1222–1229.
- [12] L. Qian, Z. Jin, J. Zhang, Y. Huang, Z. Zhang, Z. Du, *Appl. Phys. A* 80 (2004) 1801–1805.
- [13] W. Chen, X. Guo, S. Zhang, Z. Jin, *J. Nanopart. Res.* 9 (2007) 1173–1180.
- [14] Q. Li, J. Zhang, Z. Jin, D. Yang, X. Wang, J. Yang, Z. Zhang, *Electrochim. Commun.* 8 (2006) 741–746.
- [15] Q. Li, X. Wang, Z. Jin, D. Yang, S. Zhang, X. Guo, J. Yang, Z. Zhang, *J. Nanopart. Res.* 9 (2006) 951–957.
- [16] X. Chen, L. Liu, F. Huang, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 44 (2015) 1861–1885.
- [17] T. Xia, X. Chen, *J. Mater. Chem. A* 1 (2013) 2983.
- [18] L. Liu, P. Yu, X. Chen, S. Mao, D. Shen, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 111 (2013) 065505.
- [19] J. Qiu, C. Lai, E. Gray, S. Li, S. Qiu, E. Strounina, C. Sun, H. Zhao, S. Zhang, *J. Mater. Chem. A* 2 (2014) 6353.
- [20] G. Zhu, Y. Shan, T. Lin, W. Zhao, J. Xu, Z. Tian, H. Zhang, C. Zheng, F. Huang, *Nanoscale* 8 (2016) 4705–4712.
- [21] X. Zou, J. Liu, J. Su, F. Zuo, J. Chen, P. Feng, *Chem. Eur. J.* 19 (2013) 2866–2873.
- [22] H. Tan, Z. Zhao, M. Niu, C. Mao, D. Cao, D. Cheng, P. Feng, Z. Sun, *Nanoscale* 6 (2014) 10216–10223.

- [23] Y. Wang, C. Feng, M. Zhang, J. Yang, Z. Zhang, *Appl. Catal. B- Environ.* 100 (2010) 84–90.
- [24] C. Feng, Y. Wang, J. Zhang, L. Yu, D. Li, J. Yang, Z. Zhang, *Appl. Catal. B- Environ.* 113 (2012) 61–71.
- [25] M. Zhang, Z. Jin, J. Zhang, X. Guo, J. Yang, W. Li, X. Wang, Z. Zhang, *J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem.* 217 (2004) 203–210.
- [26] H. Lu, B. Zhao, R. Pan, J. Yao, J. Qiu, L. Luo, Y. Liu, *RSC Adv.* 4 (2014) 1128–1132.
- [27] C. Yang, Z. Wang, T. Lin, H. Yin, X. Lu, D. Wan, T. Xu, C. Zheng, J. Lin, F. Huang, X. Xie, M. Jiang, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 135 (2013) 17831–17838.
- [28] A. Naldoni, M. Allietta, S. Santangelo, M. Marelli, F. Fabbri, S. Cappelli, C.L. Bianchi, R. Psaro, V. Dal Santo, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 134 (2012) 7600–7603.
- [29] G. Wang, H. Wang, Y. Ling, Y. Tang, X. Yang, R.C. Fitzmorris, C. Wang, J.Z. Zhang, Y. Li, *Nano Lett.* 11 (2011) 3026–3033.
- [30] Z. Wang, C. Yang, T. Lin, H. Yin, P. Chen, D. Wan, F. Xu, F. Huang, J. Lin, X. Xie, M. Jiang, *Adv. Funct. Mater.* 23 (2013) 5444–5450.
- [31] T. Xia, W. Zhang, J.B. Murowchick, G. Liu, X. Chen, *Adv. Energy Mater.* 3 (2013) 1516–1523.
- [32] T. Xia, W. Zhang, J.B. Murowchick, G. Liu, X. Chen, *Nano Lett.* 13 (2013) 5289–5296.
- [33] W. Wang, W. Huang, Y. Ni, C. Lu, Z. Xu, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 6 (2013) 340–348.
- [34] F. Zuo, K. Bozhilov, R.J. Dillon, L. Wang, P. Smith, X. Zhao, C. Bardeen, P. Feng, *Angew. Chem.* 124 (2012) 6327–6330.
- [35] F. Zuo, L. Wang, T. Wu, Z. Zhang, D. Borchardt, P. Feng, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 132 (2010) 11856–11857.
- [36] W. Zhuang, L. Li, J. Zhu, R. An, L. Lu, X. Lu, X. Wu, H. Ying, *ChemElectroChem* 2 (2015) 374–381.
- [37] L. Li, K. Shi, R. Tu, Q. Qian, D. Li, Z. Yang, X. Lu, *Chin. J. Catal.* 36 (2015) 1943–1948.
- [38] J. Wang, P. Liu, X. Fu, Z. Li, W. Han, X. Wang, *Langmuir* 25 (2009) 1218–1223.
- [39] Y. Zhao, W. Ma, Y. Li, H. Ji, C. Chen, H. Zhu, J. Zhao, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.* 51 (2012) 3188–3192.
- [40] M. Kong, Y. Li, X. Chen, T. Tian, P. Fang, F. Zheng, X. Zhao, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 133 (2011) 16414–16417.
- [41] S. Chakraverty, S. Mitra, K. Mandal, P.M.G. Nambissan, S. Chattopadhyay, *Phys. Rev. B* 71 (2005) 0241151–0241158.